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Topics of the Day.

MR. STEVENS admitted in the House, on Tuesday, that the plan of the Committee of Fifteen was not what he would have liked, but that he had accepted it as the best thing that nineteen States could be got to adopt—a rather remarkable concession to expediency to emanate from one of the most uncompromising worshippers of abstract right we have amongst us. Mr. Blaine, in a conversation which followed, knocked the bottom out (to use a homely phrase) of the third section of the constitutional amendment, by calling attention to the fact that the people whom it proposed to disfranchise had nearly all had their political rights restored to them by the amnesty proclamation, or had been pardoned by the President. This view Mr. Stevens concurred in, so that the amendment will probably now come before the country in a practical shape, and admit of serious discussion.

THE Senate has passed the joint resolution congratulating the Emperor of Russia on his escape from assassination. Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, made a desperate effort to have the words ascribing the crime to "an enemy of emancipation" struck out, but was unsuccessful. There is, at this moment, perhaps, no more valuable life in the world than the Czar's, and we trust he will live to see the distinctions which he has effaced from the laws disappear also from the manners of his people. Freedom will speedily bring this latter result about; but even now the addition of sixty millions of freedmen to the working population of Europe is one of the most momentous economical, as well as social and political, facts of our time. If the empire was in a sufficiently advanced stage of culture to make it possible to offer settlers in it the same freedom that is enjoyed here, its immense tracts of unoccupied land would make it a serious competitor with us amongst the would-be emigrants of more powerful countries.

THE Anti-Slavery Society has made its yearly announcement of principles and opinions. The resolutions declare that every political right of a citizen should be guaranteed to the negro; this we owe to him and to ourselves; now, with these rights denied, the negro is but nominally free; the Southern policy in regard to the negro is to be seen in the glass of Jamaica; as for the rebellion, it has not ceased; "once it fought, now it intrigues; once it followed Lee in arms, now it follows Johnson in guile and chicanery; once it had its headquarters in Richmond, now it encamps in the White House;" the President should long ago have been impeached; he has been guilty of gross usurpation in his manifest use of his high powers to aid rebellion; reconstruction should be based upon universal suffrage and universal amnesty; let the loyal people in each Southern State meet first, however, and prepare a State constitution that shall be republican; Congress deserves praise for passing the civil rights bill, but it stultified itself when Colorado was admitted with the word "white" in its aristocratic constitution; the

defeat of the Union party in 1868 is better than compromises which sacrifice justice and fling the gains of the war away. The speaking at this year's meeting seems to have been hardly so good as usual, but of course Mr. Phillips made some effective speeches. He charged Mr. Seward and the President with planning to split the Union party because they saw that if it remained a unit the next President must be Grant.

THE Legislature of Tennessee has just passed a bill which disfranchises every citizen who took any part in the rebellion or gave it any indirect support. It is provided that in every county of the State a commissioner shall be appointed who may hear evidence and who shall see that the law is executed. No suspected man may vote until he proves by two qualified voters that he has never committed any disqualifying act, and then he must take an oath affirming his loyalty and binding himself to conform to all the requirements of the amended State constitution. Of course such a law provokes the bitterest hatred of a large majority of the population, and is pronounced infamous, tyrannical, and unconstitutional. Thus a thing which, as a matter of policy, Congress hesitates to do, which it does not attempt to do without a preparatory amendment to the Constitution, the Tennessee Legislature has done without scruple.

THE bill to encourage telegraphic communication between the United States and the Bahamas, Cuba, and other West India Islands, has received the signature of the President. Although it sanctions a monopoly, the rights of Congress and the public have been carefully guarded, and the company may proceed without jealousy to lay their lines and reap their dividends. The fair prospect of the new Atlantic cable ought to stimulate their exertions. Both England and Spain will thank them for anchoring their colonies at their own door, as it were.

THE Republicans of Connecticut, after much animated discussion, have nominated General O. S. Ferry as their candidate for Mr. Foster's seat in the Senate. Mr. Foster's long services and very respectable character pleaded for him as well as the fact that since the assassination he has been the acting Vice-President. He also had the endorsement of General Terry, whose own name had been mentioned as a candidate. But the left wing of the party were dissatisfied with him, and this nomination of General Ferry may be regarded as their triumph, and it seems not wholly without meaning as showing the ground occupied by the Connecticut Republicans. It will be remembered that even since the Hawley election and narrow escape from defeat, the Secretary of State and Lieutenant-Governor Winchester have declared that the course of President Johnson has been wholly satisfactory to them and the party.

THREE or four days since, Secretary McCulloch, with a party of ladies, took a trip down the Chesapeake. He had not intended to go so far, we are told, but the weather was so fine that he got down to Fortress Monroe. Then, for what reason nobody knows, he paid a long visit to Jefferson Davis. The *Herald* correspondent, to whom we are indebted for these facts, suggests that the secretary merely wished to gratify his curiosity with a sight of the prisoner and "have a social chat with him as man to man." Nothing is known of what took place at the interview, but "it is to be presumed," the correspondent says, "that many topics were discussed in which the shrewd, cultivated, and incisive vigor of their diverse minds and views shone out with brilliant effect." Very likely, too, Mr. Davis would betray a palpable eagerness to speak of his long imprisonment, his impaired health, and his eager-

ness to be tried, and no doubt Mr. McCulloch "would listen with mingled politeness and patience" to these diversions. As a bit of pure speculation, the above is interesting.

THE ship-builders' strike in this city, by which some 1,000 men of various trades are said to be thrown out of employment, still rages. Its object is the substitution of eight hours for about nine as a day's labor, but, as usual, the last thing the strikers seem disposed to concede in the matter is liberty to their fellows. Those who would rather work nine hours than eight are not allowed to do so, some thirty of them having been set upon by a mob of three hundred, and several severely beaten while at work. There is a touch of the comic given to these proceedings by the fact that we are asked to believe that the men who display this brutal disregard of their neighbors' rights seek more leisure in order to devote it to the cultivation of their minds.

PROBST, who murdered the Deering family, has told the story of his butchery with the same nonchalance with which the horrible deed was committed. The matter was a very simple one: he was in want of money, and he thought he could get what he wanted by murdering a former employer. When he found or believed it necessary to despatch also the entire family, he enlarged his determination without flinching, and would have killed them on their way down to breakfast if he had felt sure of succeeding. There is absolutely no trace of mercy or pity in the whole proceeding—hardly any of remorse, if that can be called remorse to which he alluded in saying "Yes" to the question whether he "felt bad" after the murder. One can scarcely imagine more inhuman apathy than was displayed by him in shaving himself with the razor of his chief victim, and then making a meal in the house. Yet, with an inconsistency which is remarkable, he supplied the horses in the stable with as much hay as he could before leaving the premises. The cunning of the man was as brutal as his action.

THE cholera makes no progress here, apparently, but the cold weather is now fairly over, and, if the pestilence is coming, we may now look for it very shortly. In England, the second outbreak is daily expected. The disease having already reached Rotterdam in its westward progress, the Privy Council has issued an order proclaiming its approach. In New York, despite some false alarms, there have been no well-ascertained cases as yet on shore, and the Board of Health is assailing the nuisances with imperial power and more than imperial vigor. Judge Barnard has "enjoined" it against removing some stalls on the sidewalk, but the injunction will probably fail very much like the fly on the cart-wheel. There is hardly anything the New York courts have not now issued injunctions against. Why not try the effect of one on the cholera? The most important part of the work the Board is now doing is the organization of a system of preliminary relief for the visitation of the poor and the discovery and treatment of cases in which only the premonitory symptoms have occurred. This is something which can only be thoroughly done by volunteers.

We have received expostulations from some friends who misunderstood the duty undertaken by THE NATION on our presenting public criticism of the public acts of Mr. Stevens and Mr. Sumner, upon the ground that at this time it was better to overlook minor differences about means among those who have the same general purpose in view, rather than at anything which might lower the public confidence in their clear-sightedness and ability as leaders. That neither of these gentlemen takes this view of the matter is shown by some recent remarks of Mr. Stevens, in which he quotes Mr. Sumner as characterizing the course which he has himself felt it right to pursue, as "gross, foul, outrageous, with every other vulgar epithet which polished cultivation could command," and in which he accuses Mr. Sumner of "a perversion of philological criticism which if, when I taught school, a lad who had studied Lindley Murray had assumed, I would have expelled him from the institution as unfit to waste education upon."

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 9, 1866.

THE opening, in the House, of the discussion upon the Reconstruction Committee's constitutional amendment shows a greater degree of adhesion to the measure than was anticipated. The chief objections brought forward by Republicans were to the third section, which denies suffrage for representatives in Congress and for President to all lately engaged in rebellion, until the year 1870. This may yet be stricken out, and, if so, there is little room to doubt the passage of the remainder by the requisite two-thirds majority. Representatives have heard widely from the people as well as from the press, and assert a unanimity among the former which is not at all reflected in the voice of the latter. Outside the chief cities, it is alleged, the whole North will sustain the exaction of these guarantees.

The House has gone vigorously to work upon the tax bill, and is sitting to a late hour each evening to perfect its many details.

The Senate has fallen into the besetting sin of confounding the public business with electioneering speeches. The vexed question of the Federal patronage, as dispensed by the President, led to this, and a general political mêlée has followed, very amusing, but in the highest degree profitless.

DIARY.

Monday, May 7.—In the Senate, the reconsideration of the amendment to the Post-office bill, withholding payment from appointees of the President made to fill vacancies without consent of the Senate, was discussed by Messrs. Poland, Sherman, Stewart, Saulsbury, and McDougall against the amendment, and by Messrs. Howe and Trumbull in its favor. The amendment was reconsidered—yeas, 21; nays, 18.

In the House, Mr. Julian offered a resolution looking towards prohibiting any denial of the elective franchise in the territories on the ground of color; also, declaring that no State shall be hereafter admitted to the Union with a constitution making such denial. The House refused to table the resolution—yeas, 29; nays, 76—and it was referred. Mr. Boyer offered a resolution that the Committee on Reconstruction be discharged. Laid on the table—yeas, 100; nays, 24. A joint resolution to exempt crude petroleum from duty was passed. The internal tax bill was discussed by Messrs. Morrill and Raymond.

May 8.—In the Senate, Mr. Fessenden reported the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill. The House resolution congratulating the Emperor of Russia and the twenty million serfs on his escape from assassination was passed. Also, the House resolution exempting petroleum from tax. The President's power of removal was again discussed at great length, on the amendment to the post-office appropriation.

In the House, the constitutional amendment reported by the Reconstruction Committee was discussed by Messrs. Stevens, Finck, Kelley, Schenck, Thayer, and Garfield. The two latter opposed the third section, which disfranchises until 1870 the participants in the rebellion. The tax bill was discussed at length, and amended.

THE FREEDMEN.

AMONG the recent cases of outrage reported to the Bureau are the following: In Lexington District, S. C., a negro was taken from his house, severely paddled, and shot in his left cheek and hand. All his furniture was burned. In Mecklenburg County, Va., an old colored woman, seeking to recover her grandchild from a planter, was obliged to procure the assistance of the agent of the Bureau, when the child was promised on her calling again. She went accordingly, and experienced the most brutal treatment, being knocked down repeatedly, dragged by a rope for some distance, and finally flogged on her bare back. At or near Louisa Court House, Va., a white man killed a negro who had done some work for him, and who was importuning him for his pay. The murderer was tried by a civil court, and the jury speedily found him "not guilty."

—We are without other particulars than those contained in a telegraphic despatch, of the doings of a mob at Meridian, Mississippi, which on the 4th broke into and sacked a building occupied by the Freedmen's Bureau, and then burnt it. It is also reported that at Grenada, in the same State, on the 30th of April, the general agent of the Bureau was foully murdered.

—The inspector-general of the Bureau, having thoroughly investigated the affairs of the freedmen in Virginia, makes on the whole a very satisfactory report of them. The various colored schools are well attended, and prejudice is slowly fading out. The sanitary condition of the freed people has so far improved as that all Bureau hospitals have been abolished, medical attendance being part of the labor contracts of the employers. Although the State had at one time a superabundance of laborers, the demand now greatly exceeds the supply. Males average \$12 a month, including food, quarters, and medical attendance.

Notes.

LITERARY.

EXCEPT by those who have made the subject a special study, little is known of the collection of Jewish writings which goes by the name of "The Kabbalah," and which claims for itself the greatest antiquity and authority, as having been "first taught by God himself to a select company of angels," by whom it was communicated to Adam "to furnish the prototypes with the means of returning to their pristine nobility and felicity." It is said to be the "Secret Wisdom," or "Doctrine received by oral tradition," and to have been transmitted by Adam, through the Patriarch, to Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, which last personage, being condemned to death by Titus, escaped to a cavern, where he remained twelve years, occupying himself, with the assistance of the prophet Elias, in perfecting "The Kabbalah," the secrets of which were hidden till then in the first four books of the Pentateuch. The early Kabbalists reject this account as fabulous, and ascribe "The Kabbalah" to Rabbi Isaac the Blind, of Posquiers, who lived towards the end of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth centuries, and who was called "The Father of the Kabbalah." The work itself, as we now have it, consists of three separate works: the "Jetzira," or "The Book of Creation," the "Zohar," i. e., *light, splendor*, which was originally called the "Midrash," and the "Commentary of the Ten Sephiroth." The earliest of these, the "Jetzira," which pretends to be a monologue of the Patriarch Abraham, and to contain the reasons which led him to forsake the worship of the stars for the faith of the true God, is believed to have been a fabrication of the ninth century, or thereabouts, to supply a lost book of the same name mentioned in the Talmud, as the Book of Jasher is mentioned in the Hebrew Scriptures. The "Zohar," which professes to be a revelation of God to Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, already mentioned, who lived about a century after Christ, and who, on his death-bed, communicated it to his disciples, is now considered by Steinschneider, Jellinek, and others, to be a fabrication of the thirteenth century. Its authorship, indeed, is pretty clearly proved against Moses de Leon, by whom the "Zohar" was first given to the world, and who died at Arevalo, in Spain, in 1305. Joseph de Avila endeavored to obtain the original manuscript after Moses de Leon's death from his widow, who declared that no such manuscript had existed, but that her husband, as he had admitted to her and her daughter, composed it out of his own head and wrote it with his own hand. She further confessed that she had often asked him why he had published his work under the name of another, and he told her that if he had published it as his own nobody would have bought it, while published as the production of Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, it had paid him handsomely. The truth of this statement of Moses de Leon's widow is said to be confirmed by the fact of the "Zohar" containing passages from other works of de Leon's written in Spanish and extant still. The "Zohar" itself, which was written in Aramaic, and which circulated for a time in manuscript, was first published at Mantua, between 1538 and 1560. It may be described as being in the main a commentary on the Five Books of Moses. It is interspersed with dissertations which dilate upon the diverse doctrines of the Kabbalah in the oddest and most fantastic manner, affecting to find marvels of wisdom and mystery in the forms and ornaments of the Hebrew alphabet, in the divine names and the letters which compose them, and in the narratives and traditions of the Bible. The "Commentary of the Ten Sephiroth" was written by the Rabbi Azariel Ben Menachem, who was born at Valladolid about the commencement of the twelfth century, and who was a pupil of Isaac the Blind, "The Father of the Kabbalah." In the form of question and answer it explains the Kabbalistic doctrine of En Soph, which stands for the Deity, and of the Sephiroth, who are his emanations, begotten, not made, and both infinite and finite. From these Sephiroth, which are the archetypal man, were evolved the worlds which are their brightness and express image; and, later, all human souls, which are pre-existent, occupying a separate hall in the upper world of spirits, where they determine whether they will be good or bad while in their temporary abode in the flesh. The Kabbalistic doctrine concerning the soul is that, after developing itself on earth, it returns to the infinite source whence it emanated; and that when all souls shall have passed the period of their probation here, Satan will be changed to an angel of light, hell will be no more, and God will be all in all, the creator and the created one. The study of the Kabbalah produced several schools in Spain, the earliest of which, the school of Gerona, was followed by the school of Segovia, so called after its founder, Joseph of Segovia, who lived in the thirteenth century. Next came the quasi-philosophic school of Isaac Ben Abraham Ibn Latif, and the school of Abulafia, founded by Abraham Ben Samuel Abulafia. The cardinal doctrines

of the Kabbalah were derived from the Neo-Platonic philosophy, a fact which accounts in some degree for the hold it obtained over the minds of Christians in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Mirandola found in its cloudy utterance the chief doctrines of his church, and, at the request of Pope Sixtus IV., translated three commentaries upon it into Latin for the use of divinity students. He also brought it to the notice of Reuchlin, who wrote two treatises in explanation of its mysteries and their interpretation—"De Verbo Mirifico" and "De Arte Cabalistica." A century later the study of the Kabbalah spread into Palestine and Poland, two schools arising in the former country, that of Cordovero, which occupied itself with the speculative Kabbalah, as it was called; and that of Loria, which dealt with the wonder-working Kabbalah. The last attracted the attention of the Jesuit Kircher, who published an elaborate work thereon for the use of Christians. About his time the Kabbalah achieved its greatest success and received its greatest defeat, both in the person of Sabbatai Levi, whose head was so turned by its mysteries that he proclaimed himself the Messiah, the Son of David, the Redeemer of Israel, and, being excommunicated for it at his birth-place, Smyrna, traveled to Salonica, Athens, Morea, and Jerusalem, teaching the Kabbalah, anointing prophets, and converting thousands. Arrested at last by the Sultan Mohammed IV., he was brought before him at Adrianople. "I am going to test thy messiahship," said the Sultan. "Three poisoned arrows shall be shot into thee; if they do not kill thee, I too will believe that thou art the Messiah." Rather than stand this test Levi recanted and embraced Islamism on the spot, to the ruin of his thousands of dupes. The influence of the Kabbalah declined among the Jews, and no wonder, since it now had the effect of converting many of their number to Christianity, chiefly men of the highest position in the synagogue, among others Paul Ricci, physician to Maximilian I., and Jacob Frank, a great Kabbalist, whose example was followed by thousands of his disciples. Such, in brief, is the history of this singular collection of pseudo-sacred writings which has lately been made the subject of an interesting volume published by the Longmans, "The Kabbalah: its Doctrines, Developments, and Literature, by Christian D. Ginsburg, LL.D."

—A number of Byron's letters, formerly in the possession of his friend Hodgson, to whom they were addressed, was lately sold in London. The first, which was dated Newstead Abbey, Nov. 3, 1803, brought twelve guineas. A second, dated some six years later, and interesting from its reference to Miss Milbanke, then about to become Lady Byron, realized £6 10s.; a third, £3 12s. In the last Byron desires Hodgson to inform Drury that he has a treasure for him—a whole set of original Burns's letters, never published or to be published, since they were full of fearful oaths and the most nauseous songs. "However," Byron adds, "they are curiosities, and show him quite in a new light. The mixture, or rather contrast, of tenderness, delicacy, obscurity, and coarseness in the same mind is wonderful." A volume of autograph letters of Mrs. Siddons brought at the same sale £31 10s.

—It is almost to be regretted that Shakespeare ever wrote the sonnets which have come down to us bearing his name, since they have occasioned such contradictory writing and profitless reading in the shape of comment and interpretation. The key of the mystery, if there be one, lies in the enigmatical initials W. H., which mean one person with one critic, and another person with another. The latest reading we have seen is that of a writer in "The Examiner," who contends that they stand for *William himself*! His theory, for of course he has one, is, that the sonnets are an entire poem in two parts, the boy, or fair youth, of the first being a personification of poetry, or poetic genius, the woman of the last a personification of the drama, or dramatic genius. The first part of the poem expresses Shakespeare's religious love of poetry, the second his more familiar love of the woman, the whole being a psychological hymn, dedicated to the genius which inspired it. "The inconceivable skill," says this idealistic gentleman, "with which he has depicted his genius poetic, and contrasted it with his genius dramatic, holding himself between the two, bending in love which is almost idolatry before the one, and utterly against his conviction yielding in love to the other, is food for long astonishment." That Shakespeare is more of a poet than a dramatist—in other words, that the sonnets are superior to "Lear," say, or "Hamlet"—is astonishing, so astonishing, indeed, that no genuine Shakespearian will for a moment believe it. As regards the theory of the sonnets, that they are not autobiographic, it was first broached in Germany by Bernstorff.

—An instalment towards a complete ecclesiastical history is Prof. Dollinger's "First Age of Christianity and the Church," of which an English translation has just been published by Mr. H. N. Oxenham. It consists of two volumes, written in the soundest and most liberal spirit of German

Catholicism, the first treating of the ministry of Christ and his Apostles, and of the doctrine of the latter, while the second discusses the constitution of the Apostolic Church. It is a sequel to Prof. Döllinger's work on "The Gentile and the Jew," already translated by Mr. Oxenham, who dedicates his present translation to Dr. Newman.

—The latest issue of the "Golden Treasury" series is the world-famous "Robinson Crusoe," which has been so mutilated and modified since its first publication that its author would scarcely recognize it were he to revisit "this dim spot which men call earth." The "Golden Treasury" reprint, which includes the two parts, changes all this, the text being carefully printed from the original editions, even in the matter of spelling, which, however, is not archaic enough to be troublesome to the most modern of readers.

SCIENTIFIC.

NEAR AND FAR SIGHTEDNESS.—Until recently "near-sightedness" and "long-sightedness" have been explained by assuming in the first case that, in consequence of the too great convexity of the cornea and crystalline lens, one or both, the focus is formed in front of the retina, while in the second the rays of light are concentrated behind the retina, because the convexity of the parts just mentioned is too small. The correction of these imperfections by the use of concave glasses in the first instance, and of convex ones in the second, seemed to be all that was needed to show that the explanation was true. It certainly had the merit of meeting the facts, and so has been almost universally accepted by physiologists, and has found its way into every text-book touching upon the optical structure of the eye. That these conditions, if they existed, would produce the effects indicated, no one will doubt; but it should not be lost sight of that the alleged conditions of the cornea and lens were never satisfactorily shown to be attendants of the two abnormal states of the eye of which we are speaking. Recent investigations have proved that both near and long sightedness may be, and in most cases are, the result of wholly other causes. A moment's reflection will make it apparent to any one that, the refracting media being quite normal, if, in consequence of the axis of the eye being too long, the retina is too far behind the lens, the rays will meet in front of this, and thus short-sightedness will of necessity follow. The average length of the axis of the eye is a little less than an inch, viz.: 24.25 millimetres, or about 0.95 inch. Donders has shown that in near-sighted persons it exceeds an inch, and may amount to 1.20 inch and even more, the other diameters being unchanged. In this case the ball of the eye becomes more or less oval or egg-shaped, and when turned strongly towards the nose will fill the orbit more than usual at the outer angle. Concave glasses will, of course, be required to disperse the light sufficiently to bring the rays to a focus on the retina. In proof that too great convexity of the cornea does not produce near-sightedness, may be urged the fact that this convexity is greatest in childhood, but, as Volkman observed, children are rarely near-sighted.

In regard to long-sightedness, if the alleged cause of it, viz., the flattening of the cornea and crystalline lens, existed, this would of necessity form the focus, other things being the same, behind the retina; but no proof was ever brought forward that this flattening actually did exist in the majority of cases. In adopting this explanation, its inconsistency with the fact that elderly persons still see far objects distinctly, seems to have been overlooked by physiologists. The persistence of this faculty was of itself sufficient evidence to make it probable that no *permanent* change took place in the form of the lens, since this would impair the eye for seeing objects at a distance, as well as those near at hand. Kramer and Helmholtz have shown that the accommodation of the eye to seeing near objects depends upon a *temporary* change in the form of the lens, this becoming more and more convex as the object approaches the nearest point of distinct vision. This is proved by watching the relative position of the three images of a candle as seen reflected, 1st, from the front of the cornea; 2d, from the foremost or convex surface of the capsule of the lens; and 3d, from the hindmost or concave surface of this capsule. The image from this last is inverted, and that from the front of the capsule is in the middle of the three. The attention of the person whose eye is observed being directed to a distant point, if it be suddenly changed to a near one, in the same straight line with the first, so that no motion of the globe of the eye will be necessary, the central image will change its size, becoming smaller, showing that the reflecting surface has become more convex, and at the same time will change its place to one side, showing that the front of the lens has moved forward. The first and third images undergo little or no change. It is the loss of this power of changing the form of the lens, a power necessary to the distinct vision of near objects, that chiefly gives rise to long-sightedness in persons

growing old. The inability to accommodate, according to Donders, depends upon the lens becoming harder, and therefore less compressive, and so offering greater resistance to the ciliary muscle, the chief agent in producing the compression required.

When directed to distant objects the accommodating power is at rest, so that the sense of effort is wholly absent. Most persons are, however, conscious of a distinct effort, and those who are becoming long sighted, painfully so, when the eye is directed to a near object. It is commonly believed that near-sighted persons as they grow old acquire the power of seeing objects at ordinary distances, because their too convex refracting media become flattened with advancing age. This may and does happen to a slight degree in a few, but not in the majority of cases. For the most part, near-sighted persons as they grow old find that the near point of distinct vision recedes, while the far point undergoes but little change. This is an important fact in opposition to the theory of flattening heretofore so generally accepted, and is fully explained by the loss of the power of accommodation.

EDUCATIONAL.

THE Sheffield scientific school at New Haven is one of the institutions, like the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cornell University, etc., which receive their endowment in part from the national grant of public lands, bestowed for the promotion of instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts. This school, however, is not a new affair, but has been in operation for nearly twenty years. The gentleman whose name it bears, Mr. Joseph E. Sheffield, of New Haven, has, within a short time past, added to his previous donations by enlarging, at his own expense, the building which he provided, re-arranging the interior and adding two towers, to be used for astronomical observations. The whole cost of these improvements is over \$40,000. His earlier gifts amounted to over \$100,000. In one of the towers a good telescope is to be placed, which is now making for the school by Clark & Son, of Cambridge. This instrument will be used to facilitate the study of astronomy, theoretical and practical, among the scholars, rather than in those constant and accurate observations of the heavens which special and well-endowed observatories maintain.

—Massachusetts still maintains the foremost rank in popular education. Abundant confirmation of this statement may be found in the official reports for 1865, recently presented to the Legislature of that State, and made public in an octavo volume of nearly five hundred pages. On the title-page of the volume there is a sort of aristocratic self-consciousness of "position" which is a little amusing. It reads: "Twenty-ninth annual report of the Board of Education, together with the twenty-ninth annual report of the Secretary of the Board," without any indication of the State, province, or "commonwealth" to which the report or the Board pertains. Does not every one know the equipage of the king? This annual report is a most important contribution to the literature or science of public education. Indeed, the series of which it forms a part, including the contributions of Horace Mann, Barnas Sears, George S. Boutwell, and Joseph White, has been of great influence in diffusing throughout the Union, and even in foreign countries, sound opinions and trustworthy statements respecting the administration of common schools. The report of the Board, which is always brief, was drawn up this year, as we learn, by Hon. J. D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Boston. It states the school fund of the State as amounting to nearly two millions of dollars. The amount of money expended on common schools during the year was seven dollars and twenty-three cents for each person of school age. The average wages of male teachers was nearly fifty-five dollars per month; of female teachers nearly twenty-two dollars per month. About ninety per cent. of the children of the State are enrolled as scholars in the public schools. Mr. White, the present secretary, in addition to the customary administrative statistics and recommendations, gives an interesting historical view of the progress of the Massachusetts school system from the earliest days until the present.

—The number of college graduates and of other cultivated and educated men who took part in the recent war on the side of the Union was made the theme of some interesting comments by Thos. Hughes, in a recent English magazine, which were reproduced in "Littell's Living Age." The estimate which he placed on the high tone of our army was discriminating, and as the tribute of a liberal Englishman it was a gratifying acknowledgment of the aid which the educated men of the country rendered in the conflict which maintained the Government. But some American should collect in a more thorough manner the facts illustrative of the real influence which was exerted by this class of our countrymen. A contribution toward such an investigation will be found in a pamphlet lately printed under the very

vague title "The Commemorative Celebration at Yale College, July 26, 1865." This is really an account of an academic festival in honor of the former students of the university at New Haven who served their country in the recent war. In addition to a memorial discourse by Dr. Horace Bushnell, a most interesting list is given of the students from Yale who enrolled themselves among the defenders of the republic. The summary presents the following figures: The number of the graduates of the academical department who entered the national service was 454; of the professional schools, 97; total, 551; and the number of former students, not graduated, who entered the service, was 175 in the academical department; 32 in the professional schools; total, 207. The grand total, including graduates and non-graduates, was 758, of whom 106 have fallen by disease or in battle. The Yale battalion was more than decimated. It was estimated that about one-fifth of the living graduates of military age took part in the war. One class which graduated ninety-eight men sent thirty-nine soldiers to the army. The publication of the Harvard memorial volume is looked for with great interest.

—A sort of fraud has been perpetrated in one of our weekly illustrated newspapers by the publication of a large print showing the College of Business and Finance in a neighboring city. The edifice is represented as four stories high, and some two hundred feet long, while not an intimation appears in the letter-press that this is only a *château en Espagne*. We presume it will be found that not a foot of ground has been bought, nor a brick laid, for this dashing architectural venture.

—The recent death of three men who have long been identified with university education, and the expected publication of their memoirs, is likely to throw light on the influences under which the scholars of the present generation in this country have been trained. Prof. Silliman, Dr. Nott, and Dr. Wayland were as unlike in their character as the three institutions with which their names are indelibly associated. But all of them had great influence with their pupils and with the public, and their biographies will be an important contribution to the history of American colleges.

THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.*

MR. SWINTON'S book differs in several respects from any previous work published in this country on the military events of the late civil war. It is the first critical history extending beyond the limits of a single campaign: the first assuming to be based on evidence furnished by both of the contending parties; and the first, so far as we know, in which an author has ventured to express opinions diametrically opposed to those previously entertained by him. Viewed in these several aspects it is a welcome successor to that mushroom crop of "histories of the rebellion" whose appearance was almost coeval with the report of the first gun fired against Sumter, and of which the greater part, loosely constructed, inaccurate, and colored by partisan feeling, cannot possibly survive a decade; not to speak of the equally numerous family of special narratives, diaries, etc., by army correspondents, or by an occasional staff officer of a literary turn. With rare exceptions these works were little better than offerings on the shrine of national vanity. It is possible that an historian purposing to employ such an immense mass of material as the author parades in his preface could make a faithful use of it within the brief space of time which Mr. Swinton has deemed sufficient; but such expedition implies an almost superhuman industry, and the reader may with reason enquire whether it is compatible with accuracy of statement or just criticism. Napier's history of the Peninsular War, the operations covered by which it will scarcely be pretended were more important than those of the army of the Potomac, cost him sixteen years of undivided labor. Mr. Swinton has hurried his book through the press within considerably less than a year from the time when the Army of the Potomac passed out of existence. Had he used less haste he might have modified many of the opinions to which he now stands committed, and produced a permanent and valuable addition to our military literature. In its present form the work cannot be so considered.

In his capacity as a critic the author has nevertheless acquitted himself with decided ability, and his judgment will in the majority of cases probably be considered sound. That he will also arouse against himself a storm of adverse criticism admits of little doubt. While showing at times prejudice and unfairness, or assailing opinions too fixed to be overthrown by such reasoning as he employs, and sometimes, we are compelled to say, suppressing, if not perverting, the truth, he has, on the other hand, laid bare with utter fearlessness the mistakes, the ignorance, the imbecility which charac-

terized the conduct of the war at various stages. Considered as warnings against error in planning or managing future campaigns, his criticisms may serve a useful purpose; but when he intimates that, under the circumstances, another line of conduct could have been pursued than that which on more than one occasion proved so disastrous, he does injustice to the men who then controlled our Government and armies, and shows a disregard of human feelings and motives remarkable in so keen a dissector of character. When, for example, President Lincoln is censured for his reluctance to leave the Capital uncovered and his solicitude to have unimportant points guarded, the mitigating circumstances which impelled him to think and act thus are unnoticed. He had no military experience himself, and he had received no proofs that the generals around him had much the advantage in that respect. The military commander in whom the hope of the country centred, after permitting Washington to be beleaguered on one side by a greatly inferior force for more than half a year, now proposed to transfer the bulk of the army to a distant base, leaving, as it seemed, the Capital open to attack by the same enterprising enemy. That capital rested on the very confines of a hostile country, and the responsibility devolving upon the Executive to defend it was enormous in view of the moral effect which its capture would have upon the country. It was in vain to tell the President or the people that a demonstration against Richmond by the line of the James or the Chickahominy would protect Washington, for neither the Executive nor the public mind was as yet sufficiently instructed in military science to appreciate the truth of that strategic problem. At that early stage of the war, and under the circumstances then existing, the proposition was almost without a parallel, and that it should have been strenuously opposed was inevitable. The President and his advisers are nevertheless blamed for this as severely as if the maxims of war were not less familiar to them than when, two years later, Grant pushed the enemy before him to the James, and finally confronted him before the lines of Petersburg, thus leaving the capital uncovered. Is no account to be taken of the fact that within that period many a bitter lesson of experience had been gained, and that the President could comprehend in 1864 what it is unreasonable to suppose he could in 1862?

Again, when the sudden movement of Jackson down the Valley of the Shenandoah, in the spring of 1862, aroused fears for the safety of the capital, it was in the nature of things impossible for the President not to have taken such measures of defence as his maturer judgment would have convinced him were useless. No man in his position and having his imperfect experience would have done otherwise; and Mr. Swinton's bitter criticisms upon the useless diversion of McDowell's corps toward the Shenandoah, when his pickets had almost opened communication with McClellan's right wing before Richmond, are about as just as the censure of a child for an act which as a man he would never have committed. That Mr. Lincoln's order in this instance had an unfortunate influence upon the campaign admits of no doubt, but it will require more forcible arguments than Mr. Swinton employs to convince the majority of his readers that the error of the President was an unpardonable one. The odium connected with it should at least be shared by McClellan, whom, with a tenderness as marked as it must be unaccountable to those who remember the author's previous comments on this campaign, he studiously shields from blame. That general must have suspected, when he landed on the Peninsula and left Washington comparatively uncovered, that precisely such a diversion as Jackson made would be attempted against the Capital; and had he taken the trouble, by a very simple process of reasoning, to enquire what a man in Mr. Lincoln's position would do under the circumstances, he would have been prepared for precisely what happened, and still been master of the situation. It was very plain to him, certainly, that the advance of McDowell toward Hanover Court House should not be interrupted by Jackson's raid, and having made up his mind on that point, he at once determined that the conclusion must be equally obvious to the President. Just such short-sightedness marked his whole career as commander of the Army of the Potomac, and from this radical defect in his character it resulted that his plans were never thoroughly digested, and in consequence often miscarried.

In no respect is the book before us more remarkable than in its criticisms upon McClellan's military acts. Those who read the letters in the *Times* of 1864, may well rub their eyes and ask whether this is the same Swinton whose caustic pen exposed the disingenuous statements and the numerous errors of omission and commission which characterized McClellan's report. Transformed from a severe critic of the general's conduct into, we might almost say, his apologist, he labors in 1866 to prove him right in many instances where in 1864 he conclusively showed him to have been wrong. That he has changed his opinion of McClellan is nothing to the purpose—if he has done so from conviction, it is rather to his credit than otherwise—but

* "Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac. By William Swinton." New York: C. B. Richardson, 1866.

having thrown down the gauntlet to those who would impugn his judgments, by demanding that they should first impugn the reasoning on which these judgments are founded, he has invited a comparison between the letters in the *Times* and the present work on those points embraced in each. And we have no hesitation in saying that the conclusions arrived at in the former are in no instance overthrown by the facts or the reasoning in the latter—in other words, Swinton has failed to confute Swinton. It must not be supposed, however, that McClellan escapes in every instance without censure. His vacillating conduct on the Chickahominy, where he is aptly described as "halting in the perilous half-way house between the offensive and the defensive," and his failure to take advantage of Lee's rash concentration on the left bank of the river, and march, after the battle of Gaines' Mill, with his whole army upon Richmond, are commented upon in fitting terms. On the other hand, the retreat to the James River is characterized as reflecting credit upon the commander as well as the army. The narrative of the Peninsula campaign of 1862 is briefly but clearly told, but it is rather singular that the author makes no allusion to two circumstances which have been accepted as history, and in connection with which severe criticisms have been pronounced against McClellan. We refer to the alleged panic among the rebels after the battle of Fair Oaks, of which, it is asserted, advantage might have been taken by an energetic commander; and to a similar panic which, on the authority of rebel officers, prevailed among their troops after the bloody repulse at Malvern.

The unfortunate campaign of Pope in Virginia is described with no lack of vigor, but with a degree of harshness also which cannot fail to provoke replies from the parties chiefly censured. Pope himself comes in for the largest share of blame. His follies and mistakes are thrust forward in hideous relief, while not a word is said in extenuation of his acts, or in censure of that general who, after unpardonable tardiness in coming to the succor of a brother officer, coolly proposed to let him "get out of his scrape." Admitting that Pope was bewildered and outwitted by his wily adversary, it is equally clear that he might have averted defeat had he received the assistance which he was entitled to expect. Who that remembers the timely arrival of Sumner at Fair Oaks, after a weary tramp through mud and rain, or the forced march of thirty-five miles which in twenty-four hours brought the Sixth Corps to Cemetery Ridge, will doubt that if McClellan and his generals had been anxious to relieve Pope they could have done so? The difficulties under which the latter labored, and the incompetency, not to use a harsher term, of McClellan, are so elaborately set forth in Mr. Swinton's letters to the *Times* that we are surprised to find scarcely an allusion to them in the present work. Space will not permit us to review in detail other portions of the book. The campaigns of 1862 in Virginia have been selected chiefly on account of their remoteness in point of time, on the supposition that the narrative would be more accurate and also more free from bias or prejudice. In these respects the work has disappointed us, and, in fact, the nearer the author approaches the close of the war, the more full and trustworthily become his descriptions. Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville seem each an improvement upon the other, and Gettysburg is described with a vigor surpassing any previous effort. As he is of the opinion that McClellan ought to have attacked Lee on the day succeeding the battle of Antietam, so, between the retreat of Lee from Gettysburg and his return into Virginia, it is also his opinion Meade should have attacked him. These have been heretofore moot points, but the reasoning of Mr. Swinton seems to us very sound. In describing the campaigns of 1864-5, he runs counter to some very fixed opinions about men and things, but is less swayed by prejudice. When, however, he says that "Sheridan's devastations in the Valley of the Shenandoah were not less complete than those of Turenne in the Palatinate, he does injustice to the former general.

With the exception of Pope and Halleck, for whom he seems to have a cordial dislike, Mr. Swinton has spoken with tolerable fairness of the prominent generals of the Army of the Potomac, some of whom are characterized in exceedingly apt terms, a dozen words often sufficing to depict a man to the life. Grant and Meade are assigned to a considerably less exalted position than they occupy in the public estimation; while Hancock and Warren are praised without stint. The former certainly proved himself a gallant and capable officer; but that the victory of Gettysburg was due to his exertions and dispositions, as Mr. Swinton would seem to imply in his narrative, we are not prepared to believe. To the Army of the Potomac itself, the rank and file, often sorely tried by incompetent leaders; often subjected to loss of morale by change of leaders, but never discouraged, never refusing to respond to the commands of its leaders, the author renders full justice; and, in this regard, his work ought to meet the approbation of all classes of readers. Not so, however, the manner in which the oral statements or reports of rebel generals are made to substantiate the narrative. This sort of testi-

mony is valuable when used in its proper place—without it, indeed, many occurrences happening within the special observation of the rebels could not be properly explained; but where we have the evidence of our own generals on matters cognizable by both parties, it seems odd, to say the least, that Mr. Swinton should choose to refer, in the majority of cases, to rebel authorities. If he does so from a desire to be scrupulously fair to our opponents, the motive is a laudable one; but the result is that, in avoiding Scylla, he is very apt to strike Charybdis. The unfavorable aspect in which several battles, hitherto esteemed Union victories, are placed before the reader may be accounted for by the author's familiarity with rebel reports, and his reverence for the opinions of Generals Longstreet and Johnston.

The "Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac" are too purely a military history to interest the general public. The language is to a considerable degree technical, and much space is devoted to details which only a military man can fully appreciate. Nor is the style by any means a model, being at times careless and even obscure, while here and there odd words crop out, for which the author is indebted to his own invention. "Supersession" is, we believe, allowable; but "disillusionized," "positioned," "oncoming," "ongoing," "unshaken," etc., are simply detestable. Believing, also, that a rebel is a rebel, some may not relish the euphuism which seeks to hide the character under the unrecognized term "Confederate," uniformly employed by Mr. Swinton. These, however, are comparatively slight faults, which can always be corrected. As a history of some of the most important operations of the war the book has great merit, though, as we have shown, it is not always unimpeachable where the author's feelings are enlisted for or against persons or acts. That it was written with a sincere desire to present a truthful record of the deeds of the Army of the Potomac almost every page bears evidence; and, although it may not become the one history of that army, it will prove a storehouse of opinions and facts to which future explorers must often refer.

The Adventures of Reuben Davidger; seventeen years and four months captive among the Dyaks of Borneo. By James Greenwood. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—This book will be read by the young with the same kind of interest as that excited by "Robinson Crusoe." We should regret more that the author had chosen so barbarous and bloody a scene for his story, except that we believe it to be the common experience that what we read in childhood we sift by a sort of natural selection—skim through the grosser parts from an innate repugnance to dwell upon them, or else from inability to understand them—and, according as the residue is entertaining or otherwise, remember a book ever after as good, bad, or indifferent. In this way, we doubt not, "Reuben Davidger" will be appreciated for its lively action and varied incidents, spite of the repulsive, even if strictly truthful, accessories. The judgment of our maturer years, however, is in favor of the opening chapter above all the rest. It is an exceedingly skillful piece of composition—after very good models.

Hospital Life in the Army of the Potomac. By William Howell Read. (Boston: W. V. Spencer.)—This is a glimpse of war, as it looks in the train of ambulances, among the shiploads of wounded men, in the crowded hospitals; of war the day after the battle, in its cruellest aspect. In its noblest aspect also, in which it reveals the impressive fortitude, the cheerful, patient courage that no man could witness without learning to be proud of his countrymen and his kind. No wonder Shakespeare sent his Lord Byron into a hospital. There he could surely be cured of flippancy and cynicism, and made to feel that human nature is very respectable. The book will interest a large class of readers; too large a class, unfortunately, for there are not very many Americans able now to read of men dying in hospitals without reading between the lines. Its style, if that is not too ambitious a word to apply to its language, never draws the reader's attention from its facts, and these are valuable as lessons and as part of a picture of the great struggle.

MR. MILL IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

LONDON, April 21, 1866.

It would have been not at all surprising if the greatest living writer on logic and political economy, passing at the sixtieth year of his life from the solitude of his study into that stormy assemblage which has been described as possessing "all the vices of a mob with none of its virtues," had found himself unfitted for a distinguished participation in its discussions. The case, however, has turned out exactly the opposite. Mr. Mill has now spoken four or five times. Though at first there was some wavering in the verdict, each succeeding effort has been an ascent upon its predecessor, until, within the past few days, he has achieved a great and unmistakable triumph, and has made for himself a high place in the annals of parliamentary eloquence.

As it was my rare good fortune to be present in the House during that last marvellous speech, I propose to give a brief account of the scene, as well as a summary of his parliamentary career up to the present time.

On the opening of the session in February, Mr. Mill was among the earliest to arrive at the House; and, from that day to this, he has shown a punctuality in coming, a patience in listening, and a persistency in staying

even through the longest and dullest debates, which indicate that membership of Parliament is not to be with him, as it is with so many, a mere titular decoration, a genteel episode in professional toil or fashionable distraction. From my outlook in the gallery, it has seemed to me that the three most indefatigable legislators in the space below are Mr. Speaker, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Mill. All other members are peripatetic and flitting, chatting in the lobbies, lounging in the coffee-rooms, fleeing for their lives to the opera and the club from the dreary pattering of senatorial bores. These three are the ever-present figures in the House, whosever prosers, whosever goes: the Speaker, couched upon his sumptuous and canopied throne, with his lame foot reposing on a pillow before him; Mr. Gladstone, often the only tenant of the Treasury bench, catching in the net of his all-comprehensive memory everything that falls in debate, and indemnifying himself, in the course of an eight or nine hours' discussion, by the luxury of inventing a greater variety of sprawling postures than one would suppose the human form even of an acrobat or a financier was capable of assuming; Mr. Mill, at the upper end of one of the Independent Liberal benches immediately behind the place of John Bright, conspicuous for the innovation of keeping his hat under the bench instead of upon his head, and for his noble, pure, intellectual face, always turned attentively towards the member who may be speaking, and reflecting, as in some exquisite and sensitive mirror, whatever worthy thought or emotion may be generated by the debate.

The first important subject which came before Parliament this year happened to involve one in which Mr. Mill is the great authority, that of economics; and he but yielded to the general expectation in making his maiden speech without that probation of silence to which parliamentary catechumens usually submit. The cattle-plague was to be stamped out. Veterinary science had broken down. The pole-axe alone remained, the last argument of butchers. Every beast guilty of infection was to be instantly killed. But the great agricultural interest, never very eloquent and never very bashful, demanded that the Government should compensate the owners for all cattle thus sacrificed. "Not so," was substantially the reply of Mr. Mill: "let the farmers as a class organize among themselves a fund for the compensation of individual losers belonging to their class; since the farmers as a class, by the increase in the price of beef in proportion to the diminution of supply, are, according to inevitable economic laws, to be fully compensated for the aggregate loss. But if Government shall pay for every beast killed, the farmers will be paid twice over, and the general body of the community will have to pay twice over, first by the extra taxation, and second by the extra price of beef." When Mr. Mill rose, there was a movement of respectful attention throughout the whole House. The great economist whose writings had been quoted there for years was at last present to speak for himself. His physical organization is of that fine and delicate sort which, with reference to the indwelling spirit, may be said to be almost transparent; and on this his first appearance his bearing was so diffident and so sincere, so tremulous yet so intensely earnest, with so much of the reality of a great intellectual authority, yet so free from the slightest assumption of it, that the genuine English courtesy of the House was conciliated into a deferential and really applausive silence. Almost the only fault in his speech was one easily remedied: his voice, probably from nervous agitation, was pitched in too feeble a key. The essential and the gratifying thing indicated by that first speech was his ability to think acutely and profoundly on his legs and in the midst of a multitude, and the power of clothing his thought tersely and fluently in the choicest words. Two nights after, Mr. Ayrton—member for George Thompson's old constituency, the Tower Hamlets—a glib lawyer who considers himself foreordained to speak on all possible subjects and who is never guilty of any excess of self-depreciation, indulged in a fling at Mr. Mill's positions. Instantly Mr. Mill rose in reply, and now with a voice distinctly audible in every part of the House pointed out the irrelevancy of Mr. Ayrton's arguments and reiterated his own with still greater force of illustration. As soon as Mr. Mill was seated, Mr. Lowe, whom John Bright the other day described as the "intellectual gladiator" of the House, advanced to the charge against the new member. Mr. Lowe was a foeman worthy of his steel; and again this scholarly re-cluse, with his intellectual eye as clear and penetrating in the crowded assemblage as it was wont to be in the voiceless company of his books, rose and met the onset of Mr. Lowe, covering the vital point of his own argument and thrusting his sword exactly through the middle of his antagonist's. When Mr. Mill took his seat every intelligent man felt that a new and an unsurpassed power had joined the House of Commons. His second and third speeches showed what the first could not, that the great dialectic abilities of Mr. Mill are capable of being brought to bear in Parliament in hand-to-hand contests, in running debate, in logical repartee.

Passing over Mr. Mill's great argument on the reform bill, which I did

not hear—an argument the depth and massiveness of which are daily growing in the appreciation of the country—I come to the memorable speech I have already referred to, delivered last Tuesday evening.

The subject of discussion was again a bucolic one, the reduction of the duty on malt; and the resolution to that effect had been moved by Sir Fitzroy Kelly, the predestined Lord Chancellor of the next Tory ministry. The debate had dragged its slow length along over leagues of statistics and platitudes. Not a ray of genuine thought, not a flash of enlivening sentiment, had been emitted, when Mr. Mill rose to second an amendment, the point of which was that any redundancy of revenue should be applied not to a remission of the malt tax, but to a payment of the national debt. Not more than seventy members were left in the House. Mr. Bright, Mr. Disraeli, Lord Stanley, had long since fled. Mr. Gladstone was quite alone—

"A pillar of state: deep on his front engraven
Deliberation sat and public care;
With Atlantean shoulders fit to bear
The weight of mightiest monarchies."

On the Tory side, the only eminent man left to Sir Fitzroy was Bulwer Lytton, whose long, meager, uncouth form had writhed and twisted impatiently upon his seat, and who, upon the appearance of Mr. Mill, bent far forward with his chin in his left hand and the elbow resting on his knee, while his eyes glared intently from beneath the shade of his broad-brimmed hat. Two or three country members noisily stalked out of the room; some on the Liberal side moved still nearer to Mr. Mill, and all who remained sat in attitudes of respectful attention. I need not recapitulate the speech which he then made. His voice, though tremulous and by no means loud, was perfectly distinct, and every syllable from his lips was audible in every part of the House. His manner was the perfection of dignified, scholarly, and sincere speaking; almost pathetic in its earnest tones; not facile with the glossiness of practised oratory, yet fluent with the deliberation of one who is master alike of deep thought and of fitting words. It is strange the magic there is in the slightest touch of genius upon an assemblage, however weary, however dull. The first real statesmanly thought born to us that night seemed to open the heavens above our heads, and to let in light and the atmosphere of life. All felt the witchery of the spell; and the climax of admiration and of excitement was reached when, at the close of his compact and unanswerable demonstration, he commenced that peroration which must become a classic in our language, and which old members of Parliament have pronounced the most poetical and eloquent passage heard there for many years:

"I beg very strongly indeed to press upon the House the duty of taking these things into serious consideration, in the name of that dutiful concern for posterity which has been very strong in every nation that ever did anything great, and which has never left the minds of any such nation until, as in the case of the Romans under the Empire, it was already falling into decrepitude and ceasing to be a nation. . . . Whatever has been done for mankind by the idea of posterity—whatever has been done for mankind by philanthropic concern for posterity—by a conscientious sense of duty for posterity—even by the less pure but still noble ambition of being remembered and honored by them—all this we owe to posterity, and all this it is our duty, to the best of our limited ability, to repay. All the great deeds of the founders of nations, and of those second founders of nations, the great reformers—all that has been done for us by the authors of those laws and institutions to which free countries are indebted for their freedom, and well-governed countries for their good government—all the heroic lives which have been led and the deaths which have been died in defence of liberty and law against despotism and tyranny, from Marathon and Salamis down to Leipsic and Waterloo—all those traditions of wisdom and of virtue which are cherished in the history and literature of the past—all the schools and universities by which the culture of a former time has been brought down to us, and all that culture itself—all that we owe to the great masters of human thought, to the great masters of human emotion—all this is ours, because these who preceded us have taken thought for posterity."

Great as must be the delight of every one who only reads these immortal sentences and the remainder of the passage from which they are torn, that delight cannot compare with our rapt astonishment who actually heard them; with our startled and breathless joy as in the moment of their conception they came dropping so timidly, with so sweet and gentle a cadence, with such an unassuming beauty, with a passionate earnestness so veiled and chained by intellectual refinement, from the quivering lips of the speaker. There was in his manner nothing of the triumphant complacency of mere rhetoric, nothing of the muscularity and physical jubilation of mere oratory. It was altogether and infinitely above it. It was pure, ethereal, unearthly.

The immediate effect of that speech was indescribable; while upon the public, who have been reading it and discussing it ever since, its effect seems likely to be profound and lasting.

M. C. T.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

THE BOMBARDMENT OF VALPARAISO.

[FIRST NOTICE.]

It is a matter of doubt whether any exigency of war can justify the deliberate destruction of private property. Military and naval commanders usually apologize to the world even for necessary or accidental interference with the interests of private citizens or neutrals. Certainly, then, no excuse can be offered for destroying an opulent commercial city, incapable of materially influencing the operations of war, either by impeding or endangering the progress of an army or threatening any injury to a naval force. Valparaiso was bombarded by the Spanish squadron on the 31st of March. We have studied in vain to find in the manifestoes and official documents issued by Admiral Pinzon, his successor, Pareja, and Commodore Nunez, any good reason for this measure. The manifesto which Nunez sent to the diplomatic corps on the 27th of March is singularly unintelligible. We are assured that it has been correctly translated, and the facility with which Spanish is rendered into English makes it certain that either Commodore Nunez has no ideas to express or is woefully ignorant of the manner of expression, for, had the original been clear, the translation would, at least, have been comprehensible.

But in his verbiage two very queer confessions are made. First, the failure of the attempt to destroy the allied fleet in their place of refuge at Chiloe; second, the fear of some injury to his own squadron as the reason for avoiding another effort to dislodge that fleet. These admissions are strangely out of place in a communication issued for the purpose of announcing an intention to burn the property and endanger the lives of the citizens of a hostile power. Considering the nature of this acknowledgment, in conjunction with the refusal of the Spaniard to accept the challenge of President Perez to engage the allied squadron in the open sea, it is fair to conclude that he is afraid to meet the armed forces of the Republic, and will, hereafter, devote his energies to ruining non-combatants and battering with shot and shell the residences of peaceable citizens. Admiral Pareja was more logical than this man, yet he was insane enough to commit self-destruction.

To weaken an opponent is a legitimate object in war. There are two ways by which this can be accomplished, either by exhausting his capacities for offensive operations or removing his means of self-defense. The acts which may be sanctioned in these attempts occasionally vary, according to the cause of the war and the purpose for which it is waged. The Spaniard claims that the Government of Spain has been insulted by that of Chili, and demands satisfaction. By his own concession it is a point of honor which is in question. Therefore he should direct his efforts only against the party itself, or its authorized representative, from whom he demands reparation. He violates every rule of that honor of which he boasts by avoiding a conflict with the national defensive force of Chili, and inflicting wanton destruction upon the people and friends of that republic. He, furthermore, displays cowardice by choosing a point of attack where he is perfectly secure from harm and capable of injuring only those who, he knows well, are unable either to attack him or defend themselves.

Valparaiso is a commercial town. It is so favorably situated for communicating with interior provinces that, even with a bad harbor and very deep anchorage, its commerce is larger than that of any other port on the West coast. Its interests are solely, purely mercantile. It has no government docks or yards wherein vessels, ordnance, or ammunition might be prepared for service. Within its limits are no armories for the manufacture of the utensils of war. There are no accommodations for large bodies of troops, organizing for offensive operations. Its capital is largely owned by foreign merchants, and is a source of revenue to their respective nations. In no particular would Spain weaken the capacity of Chili for offensive operations by the entire destruction of Valparaiso. The allied fleet is the only force with which the Republic can assume the aggressive. Can Valparaiso add to

the defensive power of Chili? Three forts occupy positions commanding the harbor, but they are, and have been, unarmed. They are not garrisoned, with the exception of a few companies of soldiers stationed in them to preserve the domestic quiet of the city and neighboring territory. Neither is the city the entrance to an inland country, rich in supplies of provisions and abounding in wealthy villages. On the contrary, for fifty miles towards the interior, there is scarcely sustenance for more than the cactus and lizard. The Spaniard would, then, find it no obstacle, if he wished either to gain supplies for his squadron or deprive his enemy of a source of provisions.

But he has manifested no intention of landing an army or getting a foothold at Valparaiso. Is it his purpose to dampen the ardor of his antagonist? He pursues the very policy most likely to inflame the popular mind to resistance. Does he wish to check the commerce of the country? From the ashes which he has created the mercantile interests will arise with renewed vigor and increased activity. Such a demand will be made for foreign capital, merchandise, and labor, that, from all countries, a tide of commerce will flow thither unprecedented. While legitimate objects of attack, upon which he can expend his ammunition, exist, there is no justification for bombarding the undefended seaport towns.

We believe that, in spite of the badness of the reasoning process by which Commodore Rogers sought to justify his proposed interference, his desire to interfere, which of course does the highest credit to him, has won both for him and General Kilpatrick the sincere regard of the inhabitants, while the British admiral is just now loaded with the execrations of his own countrymen in Valparaiso. He seems to have been at one time as sure of his right to interfere as Commodore Rogers, but to have had less pluck, and would consequently not commit himself.

We hope that this great outrage will have the good effect of awakening the sympathies of all nations for these republics, and rouse the Governments of the United States and England to a determined remonstrance against the policy of Spain. All we ask is that, if humanity, or justice, or policy, call for our interference, that our course be deliberately shaped in Washington by the President and his Cabinet, instead of being traced out for us by naval and military officers on the spot. The acts of a great power are precedents, and precedents should only be created by statesmen and lawyers.

HEALTH IN GREAT CITIES.

A PAMPHLET on the alleged deterioration of race, brought about by the growth of large cities, has lately appeared in England from the pen of a Dr. Morgan; and, whatever may be thought of his inferences, his facts are interesting and instructive. It appears that in England, at least, while the proportion of marriages to population is in the towns the triple of what it is in the country, country marriages are two and a half times more prolific. Then, again, the death-rate in cities is one-third larger than in the country districts, so that, what with scanty births and numerous deaths, every town in England would speedily be depopulated if a constant stream of population did not flow into it from the country. What makes this fact all the more startling is, that rather more than half the population of England and Wales now live in the great towns, so that to keep them filled up is a drain on the country districts which is felt every year more severely. Dr. Morgan finds in all this proof that the inhabitants of cities are deteriorating physically, and in doing so, of course, lower the type of coming generations. But the fact seems to be that whatever defects may be created by city life, they are not transmitted to such an extent as to exercise a serious influence on posterity—the reason being that feeble city children generally die off, and those who reach maturity are therefore apt to be picked men and women. It is well known that city-bred men are in all countries found to undergo that severest of all tests of physical vigor, military service, even better than country people—a superiority which is by some observers ascribed to the gain in nervous force wrought by city life; and we doubt very much whether the average country maiden could stand the wear and tear of “a season” in any of the great capitals of the world with nearly as much success as those bred in town drawing-rooms. The capacity of a country girl to undergo severe muscular labor, such as walking, riding, or

rowing, milking or sweeping, is not necessarily an indication of greater vitality. These occupations are in themselves health-giving, even when followed by fatigue. Vitality, which is, after all, the very basis of health, is best tested by pursuits in themselves unhealthy and which involve a drain on the nervous power, such as loss of sleep, exposure to excitement, or anxiety, or mental worry.

We are sorry we have no means at hand of ascertaining the comparative growth of city and country population in this country. There is no question, of course, that the latter greatly outstrips the former as yet; but it is equally certain our cities are growing with a rapidity which, in view of the feebleness of our efforts to govern them, and the general ignorance of, or indifference to, the means of keeping them clean and healthy, may be called positively alarming. In other countries there are one or two growing rapidly; we have a dozen or two which promise in a dozen years or so to surpass in size and populousness all others of ancient or modern times. Their growth is stimulated in a variety of ways. One is the easiness of access; another is the prodigious increase of commerce and manufactures, the latter having of late years been forced heavily by the high tariff. We consequently can show several "centres of population" which, being largely created by drift from all quarters of the globe, are not much above those of Europe in intelligence, education, self-respect, or habits of self-control. We are trying to govern them too by the machinery which was invented and used by the old American population of fifty years ago, those quiet, thrifty, reading farmers, who laid the foundations of American society, who were for two centuries its boast and glory, and are still its salvation, but who are in some parts of the country being rapidly supplanted by swarms of foreign operatives. The legal influences we are able to exert, therefore, on behalf of health and cleanliness are far below those with which European legislators are armed.

That the effect of life in these busy hives upon health and physique will be much what it is in Europe, there can be little question. The same causes are at work in both places; and it seems to be settled that foremost amongst these is bad air—one of the inevitable results of crowding. That the day will come when crowding a great number of men and women together on a small space of ground will not make the air very bad after all, we think very likely; but that day is clearly a long way off. The art of policing great cities in free countries is still in its infancy. Despots alone do it successfully; but our people will hardly ever be disposed to purchase cleanliness by the surrender of their freedom. Such powers as the Board of Health in this city is armed with would hardly be tolerated as a permanency.

In the meantime, there is nothing so much needed as the use of all the influences at our command to diminish the flow of the country population into the towns; or, if this be too difficult, as we fear it is, to induce those whose business lies in them to live out of them. The plain fact of the matter is, that country life is to most Americans at this moment intolerable, and no wonder. In the first place, the means of reaching the country are disgraceful not simply to the railroad companies but to our civilization. We cannot recall to mind at this moment a single line of railroad which the directors seek to make agreeable or convenient to those who have to use it every day. Most people who live in the neighborhood of a great city make their purchases in it, particularly ladies. This is not a luxury; it is a necessity. A place at the station, therefore, to which parcels might be sent to await the arrival of the owner, would be a great convenience to suburban residents. On most suburban lines, however, no parcel will be received unless the passenger is there to receive it. This is a small matter, but it indicates a good deal. We have so often discussed the condition of the cars that we shall not here return to it. The trains are generally arranged to start or not to start at ingeniously inconvenient hours. The theory on which the time-tables of most suburban lines is apparently drawn up is, that nobody living in the country ever wants to spend an evening in the city, and nobody living in the city wants to spend one in the country; and yet there is perhaps nothing that makes country life so distasteful to all classes, working-men included, as the fact that it cuts them off from those sources of amusement or entertainment, social or other, such as only cities can supply. It must be admitted, in fact, that the social attractions offered by the country are well-nigh worthless. People who

live in the country, and who have the good sense to try and make the best of it, generally try to persuade themselves and others that they have all the society they want; but in their secret hearts they know they heroically and innocently lie. Under the most favorable circumstances, they rarely see much of their neighbors. The distances are too great, and when they are not, the roads are, during three-fourths of the year, either too muddy or too dusty to make walking agreeable. Harnessing vehicles for the payment of nocturnal visits is not agreeable, if one has to do it one's self; and it is still less agreeable to have to ask a coachman to do it, as coachmen go in these days; so that the great majority stay at home, hoping that people will "drop in in the evening"—a pleasing anticipation in which the mass of men and women who are fond of society continue to indulge in the earlier part of their lives, but which they get over before they reach what novelists call "the grand climacteric." People rarely do "drop in in the evening" anywhere. One meets with circles now and then in which the custom prevails, but they are mostly family circles, or circles long established and bound together by old and valued associations. Amongst the heterogeneous populations of most country "neighborhoods" families stay at home and wait for others, and the general prevalence of this practice of course involves general disappointment.

Then, again, persons brought together by accident in the country are not often congenial. There is no good reason why they should be. Tastes, pursuits, and antecedents may and do differ, and when they do differ conversation is apt to be a bore. And it must be confessed that, except in the case of persons of great powers, great cultivation, or great originality, meeting the same persons very often soon ceases to be amusing or entertaining. Each one very soon gets acquainted with all his neighbor's jokes, his best stories, his favorite personal experiences, and soon learns enough even of the character of his mind to be able to predict with tolerable certainty what he will say on any ordinary subject that comes up. The result is that one very rarely finds country circles rely very long on conversation. They fall back on games or "Shakespearian readings," which are generally very well for a while; but people tire of games, and there is a limit to one's enjoyment of hearing Shakespeare badly read.

The true remedy for all this is to make removal to the country as little of a separation from the city as possible, to enable people to enjoy the pure air and good scenery of the one without losing altogether the pleasures of the other, and this can only be done by thorough railroad reform. There is, in fact, it may be safely said, nothing on which the health of the cities of the United States will hereafter so much depend as this.

THE BLACKS OF HAYTI, AS SEEN BY AN ENGLISH TRAVELLER.

MR. HENRY YATES THOMPSON, whose name is known in this country as that of the author of the proposition to establish an American lectureship at the University of Cambridge, in England, has recently visited Jamaica and Hayti, on his way to this country for a second time. In a letter to the *London Daily News* he has given the results of his observations on the negroes in Hayti. They are valuable as the opinions of a man of candor, intelligence, and good sense, who has gained a standard of comparison and judgment by considerable travel in various countries.

The general ignorance, even among intelligent and cultivated men, in regard to the actual condition of Hayti, and the importance of trustworthy information concerning "this novel democracy of black and mulatto freedmen, part French and part negro in origin and language, which is to-day but in the sixty-third year of a most chequered existence, and which has barely even yet contrived to get complete recognition in the fastidious society of nations," induces us to lay before our readers the more striking parts of Mr. Thompson's letter:

"No thoughtful man," he says, "regards this country in any spirit of flippancy or jest. It is to be looked on rather as the test experiment of the manhood and capacity of the African freedmen, as containing the knot of a question which is as broad as humanity itself, and which, after a century's discussion by tongue and pen, and sword, throughout Europe and America, has lately shaken, and still shakes to its deep foundations, one of the strongest governments in the world. . . . For I defy any man to see even a little of the leading Haytians without being driven to the opinion that the capacity of freedmen of African or semi-African descent for social and intellectual elevation can only be measured by their opportunities. I have made the acquaintance in this insignificant town [Jacmel] of a merchant who, as far as color goes, is entirely, or almost entirely, of African origin, who in

manners and conversation might ornament any drawing-room in Liverpool or London. This man talks French and English not sensibly and grammatically only, but with the accent and ease of a perfect gentleman. He has travelled, and observed, and read much during a life at least as long as that of his country; and, prepared as I was, and as I suppose all Englishmen are, to acknowledge the capacity of the African races for improvement, I own that it has been a surprise to me to find not from this instance only, but from many instances both here and at Port-au-Prince, that they have already advanced so far. Both among the merchants of the towns, and the peasant freeholders who form the great majority of the country districts, and are evidently the backbone of the nation, there is remarked in the Haytiens, in comparison with the other creoles of the West Indies, a graver and more dignified personal bearing, more refined features, and more agreeable manners. And is not this what we naturally expect to find? The Haytiens have been longer free than the others. They have been free nearly twice as long as the Jamaica negroes, for example, and, what is still more important, they freed themselves. Since emancipation they have not been overshadowed by the presence of a caste of whites their superiors in civilization and their former owners and masters."

Further on, in the same connection, Mr. Thompson speaks of "the undoubted and immense superiority of the Haytiens to the Jamaicans," and of a conversation in which this superiority was asserted. An English missionary present, who had been making an extended visit to the island, and who, since his own district among the mountains of Jamaica contained over 20,000 negroes, had a good opportunity for comparing the two populations, apparently could only observe on the other side that, under the laws of Jamaica, there was absolutely no distinction of color. An old Haytian, in reply, suggested that if Gordon had been a white man, his trial and execution would probably have been a little less summary; and that in fact, however equal the laws may be, the freedmen of Jamaica are brought in disastrous competition with the class from whom they are distinguished by their color, and who in one way or another represent their former masters, so that they can never have entirely fair play to rise. That the same thing had not happened in Hayti was due to that article of the constitution which reads: "No white man, whatever may be his nationality, is permitted to land on the Haytian territory with the title of master or proprietor, nor is he able to acquire there either real estate or the rights of a Haytian." It is this well-known prohibition, let us remark, in passing, which enabled ex-Gov. Perry, in his recent correspondence with Mr. Greeley, to contrast Hayti as a black man's government with the United States as a white man's. The fallacy hardly needs to be pointed out. Hayti does not deny the equal brotherhood of man, but her bitter experience of the white race, and her well-founded apprehension of the designs of a neighboring slaveholding republic, warned her to protect herself against possible invasion and re-enslavement, and to exchange the tri-color for the bi-color. "The prejudice," says Mr. Thompson, "pervades the whole people, and crops up in many forms. There is a favorite Haytian proverb often quoted in this connection. It tells us, in the dog-French of the common people, that *œufs pas mele n'en calinda roches*—eggs must not mingle in the dance with stones." But, according to President Geffard, this prejudice is on the wane. The obnoxious clause is practically evaded in many ways, and is likely to become obsolete before it is abrogated. Their isolation has not rendered the Haytiens arrogant or offensively boastful of their own country. "All with whom I conversed," says our witness, "took a diffident and modest tone;" and for what concerns the actual treatment of the whites, spite of their political disabilities, he quotes appreciatively from Mr. Redpath's "Guide to Hayti" that "in social life, and in the callings for which they are legally qualified, they are treated with all the courtesy and regard to which their character entitles them. Exemplary conduct on their part always enables them to overcome the social disadvantages attaching to their unfortunate color."

THE LEGISLATIVE SATURDAY.

THERE was an ancient custom in New England, introduced from England or Scotland, of devoting a portion of the schoolboy's Saturdays to committing and repeating the "Shorter Catechism." Why it should ever have been called "shorter" is a mystery to us. Growing out of this custom, no doubt, the lower House of Congress is in the habit of devoting its Saturdays to a similar performance. It is not exactly catechetical, though to some extent a rehearsal of obscure doctrines, badly committed to memory. As it is growing into a settled innovation, let us briefly describe this curious legislative performance.

A citizen of this republic, sojourning at Washington, saunters up the Avenue on a Saturday. He has been fixing his eye on the white dome of the Capitol, with the black speck on the top of it, until he reaches the gate and is informed, on enquiry, that it is Saturday, and the Senate is not in session. The "Senate" may have gone on the Potomac to Mount Vernon, or in the cars to New York or elsewhere; or fragments of it, not exiled

from the White House at the other end of the Avenue, may have gone thither with friends from their own State, and be waiting, patiently or otherwise, in the presidential ante-rooms.

But our novice is at the gates of the Capitol, and he has found out that the House is in session, as is indicated by the flag still floating at its end of the building. He gropes his way through hall and corridor, escapes the grillins that lie in wait with oranges and photographs, and contrives to stumble into the gallery of the House. The hall is rather sombre, daylight struggling in drearily from the top; but even the light of a dull day makes the gilding glare painfully. He observes the two little flags over the Speaker's head, and has taken his seat before perceiving that a man is on his legs, behind one of those little gingerbread desks, haranguing the House. He cannot hear a word he says, partly because the man does not talk loud enough, but chiefly because no one is paying any attention to him. But few members are in their seats, and these are busy writing, an exercise that they vary with another that somewhat amazes our friend. He tries vainly, and would like to catch a word or two of a speech that seems to elicit such terrible applause. The members are constantly clapping their hands with great but not prolonged energy, at which little hobgoblin pages spring about, running as if to relieve each surcharged member of his enthusiasm; and our friend gradually discovers that the hand-clapping is not applause, but a mode of summoning the pages.

He gazes in bewilderment on the Babel before him. The man is reading his speech, and does so from a printed copy, and as if he were paid by the line for it. The pages skip about. The members clap their hands. People come in and look at the show with stoical apathy, and then go out again. The man finishes his reading and sits down. Another man gets up and commences the same performance. The members go out, until not over a dozen of them are left. The man is reading his speech. He does not do it very glibly; he does not do it as if he expects to gain anything by it. Some humane friend comes to his rescue with a motion; by parliamentary fiction the speech is considered delivered, and printed with the proceedings, and as many copies as the orator likes to pay for may be stuffed into the glory of a buff envelope and franked to a wondering constituency in his "district."

It may be a necessity in the economy of the great parliamentary whale that it come up to the surface and blow off, and then go down again. If it could be entirely restricted to the Saturdays it would be better; one day in six is, after all, not a great deal to devote to parliamentary nonsense. Making a speech is considered the destiny of our politicians. The member who should not succeed in going through the operation just described at least once in each session, and franking home many thousand dirty-looking little pamphlets as evidence, would be considered an utter failure—a fraud upon the public. It makes no difference that he has nothing to say. It makes still less that no one wants to listen to him. At the close of his "catechism" some leader of the House may be kind enough to shake him by the hand and congratulate him on his "speech," but even the most verdant member is not unsophisticated enough to believe that it had any effect on anybody. It is a very broad farce and a very shallow one. Each Saturday gets rid of half a dozen of these orators.

There are few occasions that justify a great parliamentary speech, as, by a wise dispensation of Providence, there are few politicians able to make one. Parliamentary power does not lie in great speeches, but in an intellect clear to grasp in a moment the strong points of a case, and in a ready command of the few pungent words that will fix them in the minds of listeners. Some parliamentary leaders have as much power to-day as they had yesterday, and will have for ever. These are the true kings, and their sceptres are not polished on Saturdays. They do not make speeches and recite them to empty benches. They may, indeed, have a weakness occasionally to rush into print; fortunately they have something more.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[FIRST NOTICE.]

THE Hanging Committee have done their work well, this year; so far, at least, as the outside world can judge of it. This is but imperfectly. One important part of their work the world knows nothing of. What's hung it partly may compute, but knows not what's rejected. That primary part of the committee's business, rejection, the world can only judge of by contrasting this exhibition with previous exhibitions. Thus it is plain that while this year's collection is the worse for the absence from it of the works of

this painter, it is better for the absence of the works of *that*; at the same time it cannot be supposed that the pictures whose absence is so welcome were not sent; they must have been sent, and rejected; and the smallness of the exhibition helps that conviction. A walk about the galleries and the mental comparison of the five hundred and twelve pictures in them with the six hundred and sixteen of last spring, although not showing any decided superiority of one exhibition over the other, yet lead to the belief that the veto power has been used and used wisely.

But whether this credit is rightly or wrongly given to the committee, the arrangement of the pictures admitted seems mainly just and wise. There are few instances of good work hung out of sight—few of bad work hung on the line.

The favorite place, the middle of the south wall of the South Gallery, is occupied by Mr. Huntington's portrait of Abraham Lincoln. This is, indeed, not the best picture in the exhibition, nor even one of the best; but we cannot find fault with the placing there of a portrait, not without merit and painted by the president of the Academy for the Union League Club, of our foremost man who is gone. Other portraits crowd into this large gallery. Mr. Elliott's portrait, No. 393, of a school-boy, is very pleasant, full of character, and contains, what is rare, a well-drawn hand. This is probably the best portrait in the exhibition, unless the two oil pictures by Mr. William M. Hunt, of Boston and Newport, are better. These are both in this South Gallery. No. 342 is a very vigorous portrait, life-size and about three-quarter length, of a lady holding a child, a picture showing considerable power of drawing and great skill in laying color. No. 405 is smaller, half length and also life-size, a lady's head shown against a background of light grey and gold, wall-paper, namely, and framed with singular appropriateness. We know of no work of Mr. Hunt's so good as his portraits, and these are among the best of his portraits. The two charcoal portraits, Nos. 34 and 64, ought not to be exhibited. Useful studies they may be, but only as private memoranda of the artists, and the disposition on the part of some people to admire such things is very harmful.

In the best place of the North Gallery is appropriately hung an important picture by Mr. J. F. Weir. It is only to be regretted that there cannot be one of the benches placed before it; a heater in the middle of the room prevents that. The picture requires a long look, and will reward it better than most pictures; the spectator ought to be allowed to sit before it a while, comfortable and undisturbed. This picture is No. 171, is called "The Gun Foundry," and belongs to Mr. R. P. Parrott; so that there is no doubt as to the scene represented. The canvas is large, and the scene takes in nearly the whole interior of a founding shed at the West Point or Cold Spring foundry, the well-known "W. P. F." A gun to bear that imprint is being cast; the great pot full of molten metal is swung to the right place by a huge crane, with four men at the windlass and one at the guide-chain: half-a-dozen more attend and tip the pot or bucket from which the carbonate of iron is running into the mould, thick, like molasses, hot and bright. The dusky shed, usually lighted only by the dim twilight that creeps through dirty windows high overhead, is filled now with the glare of the metal. Another mould is being prepared; the pipes or hose to carry cold water, Rodman fashion, to the centre of the casting, are adjusted, and a man is working at the channel through which the metal is to run—a different operation this is to be. It is well that this industrial epic has at last been painted. It is a wonder that no New York painter has represented the gloom and glow of similar scenes at the great iron-works here; it is well that a West Point painter has done this. He has done it well. There is a very unusual coherence and distinct meaning to his picture. The work is really getting done; the men are really busy, and sensibly busy; the chains hang in real catenary curves and the windlass rope is strained tight; the tools are explicable and useful-looking; a freshly cast gun on the ground is something like a freshly cast gun; the "flasks" which contain the gun-moulds are of a comprehensible shape and construction; the picture is real, and that is less often true of American pictures than could be wished. It is curious how much better drawn and conceived are the workmen in attitudes of violent action than the visitors—two ladies, three gentlemen, and a dog, who are lifeless enough. As regards the workmen, there is this cause only for regret, that they are a little too much like some models we have all seen in third-rate German pictures. It is not probable that Mr. Parrott's workmen look so like the hirsute monsters in Moritz Retsch's illustrations, especially those to Schiller's "Gang noch dem Eisenhammer." Those, childish as the fiends in the pictures to Faust, are feeble attempts of an unimaginative spirit to conceive rugged strength. We do not compare Mr. Weir's good picture with Retsch's worthless outlines, but we have the same sort of objection to the workmen in both—they all seem to be exaggerated studies of a single type, and that an unusual one in our workshops. The color of

the picture is not wholly right. On the other hand there is great skill in the management of the two conflicting lights, and it may well be that better and livelier color would have been a not unmix advantage.

There are two pictures by Mr. Eastman Johnson: No. 247, "Sunday Morning," and No. 251, "Fiddling his Way." They are both studies of New England interiors and New England people. They are full of expression. The former seems to us the better; and, although there are more beautiful pictures than this among those Mr. Johnson has painted, there are none which show more plainly his rare power. There are errors in drawing, now and then—not that the painter need make them, for he can draw if he tries—but it is curious to see how a really imperfectly-drawn figure can be filled full of feeling, if only the draughtsman can feel and is unaffected. How admirable is the young man, tilted back in his chair right under the high window-sill, the little girl near him, the old man who is reading the Bible aloud, and the children who are whispering. And, going to the other picture, we find their equals in the melancholy and expressive face of the negro, the delightful little boy, with hands behind him, who is as close to the music as he can get, and in the young woman, that typical young New England woman, worthy to have an Eastman Johnson paint her. The catalogue mentions another picture by Mr. Johnson, of which we may speak hereafter.

Mr. Winslow Homer has two pictures, and the military one, No. 490, "Prisoners from the Front," seems to be as popular as it deserves to be. We think Mr. Homer one of our first draughtsmen, in some respects unequalled, but this picture is not wholly in his best manner in execution. In the greater matters of meaning and expression it is hardly to be bettered. Those are real men—the officer with the star on his shoulder, the two soldiers with shouldered muskets, and the three prisoners. The Southern officer and the Northern officer are well contrasted, representing very accurately the widely differing classes to which they belong. Mr. Homer's other picture, "The Bush Harrow," is, to our thinking, even more valuable. The old farm-horse and the boy on the harrow are the heroes of this picture, and are perfect in their way, as good as the soldiers, and the picture is very beautiful, very interesting, fascinating in its strange deep color and bright sky.

Mr. C. C. Coleman's picture, No. 79, "Battery Reno, Morris Island, S. C.," has disappointed sincere admirers of his. It is not powerful or beautiful, nor in any respect excellent, except that we can be sure of the accuracy of the details. This assurance is valuable, and makes the picture interesting, although it is not artistically of great value. It is not necessary to compare Mr. Coleman with any one but himself, for his own better work of former years is the best standard by which to judge this.

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CHAPTER V.—Lady Ongar's Return.
CHAPTER VI.—The Rev. Samuel Saul.
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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 10, 1866.

A GENERAL revival is taking place in business, especially in produce. An active demand has sprung up for breadstuffs, pork, lard, etc., and prices are uniformly advancing. Flour is \$1 a barrel higher than it was a week ago; wheat, 20 cents higher; pork has risen nearly \$6 in the past month. The advance is mainly due to purchases for Western account. Western farmers and dealers find that the South will take all the stock they have on hand, and are buying here instead of shipping produce eastward. General merchandise is also improving. There is a good demand for coffees, hides, sugars, etc., and prices tend upward. The country is generally bare of goods, and now that people are realizing that Mr. McCulloch's threatened contraction is indefinitely postponed, they are beginning to replace their stocks.

Gold has risen as high as 129½. This afternoon it was 129½. Gold is no longer scarce. The short interest has been generally closed, on the belief that, if there is to be no contraction, the premium on gold is not excessive. Exchange has risen to 109½ to 109¾, at which rates specie can be shipped as a remittance. Between \$1,500,000 and \$2,000,000 of coin will probably be shipped on Saturday. The bill market has been swept of the commercial bills which were so abundant a few days since, and good commercial names sell within a fraction of bankers' signatures. At present prices, cotton cannot be shipped except at a loss, and unless the price falls here, or advances materially at Liverpool, the export must be light until the new crops come in. Opinions continue to vary widely with regard to the probable yield of the crop of 1866. Some authorities anticipate a crop of 2,000,000 bales; others, not more than 750,000. We incline to the belief that the former estimate is nearest to the truth.

Money continues very easy. Call loans are 4 to 5 per cent. Mercantile paper is 6½ to 7 for the best names, but the feeling is gaining ground that good names will presently be current at lower rates. No further progress has yet been made with the finance bill. It is understood that the Senate Committee on Finance will report it without amendment. The Secretary has advertised that he will pay off \$20,000,000 of debt certificates, at 100 and interest, if presented within the month. He is not likely to get many certificates, as they command a premium in the open market, and the money which they represent cannot be used at a better rate than 5 per cent. Mr. Washburn has moved for a committee to investigate the causes of the failure of the Merchants' Bank, at Washington, by which the Government loses \$700,000. Many sound men fear that other national banks have been speculating wildly with the funds of Government, and that, unless the deposits are removed, further losses will ensue.

The stock market is extremely dull, but firm. New York Central is depressed by reports of a heavy falling off in earnings. April is reported to show a decline of over \$100,000 as compared with last year; but, in reality, the falling off will probably prove much heavier. The Western roads, on the peninsula between the lakes, show a gain, as usual on the opening of navigation. The North and South lines are doing very well, in consequence of the revival of trade with the South. An active speculation has been started in Western Union Telegraph stock, which has sold as high as 64. Mariposa preferred and Quicksilver are also higher, on purchases by cliques.

Fort Wayne has been as high as 100½, but at about par the supply seems in excess of the demand. Pittsburgh is higher, on purchases by the old clique. The Prairie du Chien party have bought a round lot of Milwaukee and St. Paul stock, and have put it on the lists of the Boards, and made some quotations. They are not to be relied on, and the public will do well to obtain information regarding the property and its prospects before investing money in it. Governments all continue firm and active.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 3.	May 7.	May 10.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	108½	109	109½	½
5-20 Bonds, old.....	101½ ex.c	102	102
5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	101½ ex.c	102	102
10-40 Bonds.....	95½	95½	95½
7-30 Notes, second series.....	101½	101½	102½
New York Central.....	92½	92½	92½
Erie Railway.....	73½	73½	73½
Hudson River.....	110½	110½	109½	½
Reading Railroad.....	106½	107½	107½
Michigan Southern.....	78	78	78½	½
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	81½	82	82½	½
Chicago and North-western.....	28½	29½	29½
“ “ “ Preferred.....	58½	61	60½	½
Chicago and Rock Island.....	123½	125	95½ ex. d	½
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	98½	100	99½	½
Canton.....	59½	58½	58½
Cumberland.....	44½	44½	45
Mariposa.....	12½	13	12½
American Gold ..	127½	128½	129½
Bankers' Bills on London.....	109½	109½	109½
Call Loans.....	5	5	5

HOME
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OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - \$2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - 77,901 52

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Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

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W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - \$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

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JUNE 1, 1865.

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CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, \$885,040 57.

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1866.
TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT
 OF THE
MUTUAL
LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
 OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,
 Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

\$14,885,273 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring	\$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same,	7,830,925 92
	<u>\$91,244,858 92</u>

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865,	\$11,799,414 68
-----------------------------------	-----------------

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:	
Original on new policies.....	\$1,154,066 94
Renewals.....	1,818,654 82
War extras and annuities.....	13,428 61—\$2,988,150 40
Interest:	
On bonds and mortgages.....	361,752 88
U. S. Stocks.....	352,329 52
Premium on gold.....	94,999 66—860,082 06
Rent.....	55,823 34—\$3,853,065 80
• Total.....	\$15,652,480 48

Disbursements as follows:

Paid claims by death and additions to same.....	\$712,823 71
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions.....	20,399 52
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium.....	58,730 87
Paid surrendered Policies.....	196,691 40
Paid Annuities.....	10,342 55
Paid Taxes.....	58,076 52
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses.....	174,310 94
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums.....	334,255 12—1,540,130 63

NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....	\$14,112,349 58
-------------------------------------	-----------------

Invested as follows:

Cash on hand and in Bank.....	\$1,475,899 82
Bonds and Mortgages.....	7,348,622 30
United States Stocks (Cost).....	4,468,921 25
Real Estate.....	782,367 34
Balance due by Agents.....	36,539 14—\$14,112,349 85

Add:

Interest accrued, but not due.....	\$112,000 00
Interest due and unpaid.....	5,084 73
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received.....	655,844 30—772,929 03

GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866.....	\$14,885,278 88
----------------------------------	-----------------

INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR.....	\$2,312,935 17
---	----------------

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same.....	\$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due).....	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same.....	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for).....	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance.....	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over \$1,000,000).....	218,619 42

DIVIDEND OF 1866.....	\$2,975,388 58
-----------------------	----------------

Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above.....	\$14,885,278 88
---	-----------------

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions (\$11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of \$1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds \$1,300,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE.....	\$14,885,278 88
--------------------------	-----------------

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AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as cash in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

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DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid	944,042

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At the Fair of the American Institute held in New York in 1865 CARHART & NEEDHAM received the SPECIAL GOLD MEDAL over all the other instruments placed there in competition. The judges were Dr. Wm. Berge, C. B. Seymour (critic of the New York Times), Thomas Appleton, celebrated organ builder of Boston, George Jardine, also a well-known organ builder, and Dr. E. Ringer, an expert in the business.

**EXTRACTS FROM THE SEVERAL REPORTS OF THE
JUDGES.**

From Report of Dr. Wm. Berge.

"The quality of the tone is the best I have ever heard, and the number of stops surpassed my expectations. The delicacy of touch and the quickness of speech are remarkable. In fine, I consider the Parlor Organ of Messrs. CARHART & NEEDHAM to be the best on exhibition, and therefore entitled to the highest award of the Institute."

From the Report of C. B. Seymour.

"The undersigned thinks it proper to suggest that CARHART & NEEDHAM should receive a Special First Premium for their large Parlor Organ."

From Report of Thomas Appleton.

"No. 526 is the best for the following reasons: 1st. It contains more reeds and of greater variety than any other. 2d. The reeds are placed above the key-board, thereby allowing a greater volume of sound to be heard. 3d. The successful application of the swell, which makes this instrument resemble the church organ more nearly than any previous arrangement. 4th. The voicing of the reeds is remarkable, and in the smoothness and quality of tone they resemble pipes more than reeds. The instrument is undoubtedly superior to any ever before constructed with reeds."

From Report of George Jardine.

"To the honor and credit of the United States of America a native American citizen is the first in the world who has discovered and demonstrated that not only can these vibrating tongues or reeds descend lower in the base, but of the very finest quality of tone, rich, round, and full, of quick articulation and free from windiness, right down to the 32 feet tone of C C C C. No doubt the fame of these gentlemen and their discovery will very soon and deservedly be circulated among the makers of Reed Organs in the world."

From Report of Dr. Ringer.

"No. 526 is the best for the following reasons: For its superior softness, evenness, and power of tone, being less ready than in any instrument I have examined. 2d. For the great number of keys of different character of tone, which give the player an almost infinite variety of combinations."

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